

Miss Haines

67 Warren St

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THE NEW STATES.

We have observed, in many newspapers, within the past year, an article having the above title, and purporting to give the dates at which all the new states, those not included in the "old thirteen," had been admitted into the Union. Suspecting the correctness of the article, in regard to its dates, we have examined the original acts of admission, and find that seven of the seventeen in the newspaper from which we copy, were wrong. Below, we give a corrected list, together with the boundaries of Wisconsin, which has recently been admitted into the confederacy.

*Vermont.*—Originally, was a part of New York, (or New Hampshire, for both claimed it,) and was admitted into the Union, March 4, 1791.

*Kentucky.*—Formerly a part of Virginia, admitted into the Union, June 1, 1792.

*Tennessee.*—Formed of territory ceded to the United States by the State of North Carolina, admitted into the Union, June 1, 1796.

*Ohio.*—Formed out of part of the territory north-west of the river Ohio, admitted into the Union, November 29, 1802.

*Louisiana.*—Formed out of part of the territory ceded to the United States by France, received into the Union, April 30, 1812.

*Indiana.*—Formed from a part of the North-West Territory ceded to the United States by Virginia, admitted into the Union, December 11, 1816.

*Mississippi.*—Formed out of a part of the territory ceded to the United States by the State of South Carolina, admitted into the Union, December 10, 1817.

*Illinois.*—Formed from a part of the North-Western Territory, admitted into the Union, December 3, 1818.

*Alabama.*—Formed out of part of the territory ceded to the United States by South Carolina and Georgia, admitted into the Union, December 14, 1819.

*Maine.*—Formed out of part of Massachusetts, admitted into the Union, March 16, 1820.

*Missouri.*—Formed out of part of the territory ceded by France, by treaty of April 31, 1803, admitted into the Union, August 10, 1821.

*Arkansas.*—Formed from part of the same Territory, admitted June 15, 1836.

*Michigan.*—Formed out of part of the territory ceded to the United States by Virginia, admitted into the Union, June 15, 1836.

*Florida.*—Formed out of the territory ceded by Spain to the United States by treaty of February 22, 1819, admitted March 3, 1845.

*Iowa.*—Admitted to the Union, March 3, 1845.

*Texas.*—An independent republic, admitted among the United States by a joint resolution of Congress, approved Dec. 29, 1845.

*Wisconsin.*—A part of the North-Western Territory; admitted into the Union, May 29, 1848, and bounded as follows:

Sec. 1. It is hereby ordained and declared, that the State of Wisconsin doth consent and accept of the boundaries prescribed in the act of Congress, entitled "An act to enable the people of Wisconsin Territory to form a constitution and State government, and for the admission of such State into the Union," approved August sixth, one thousand eight hundred and forty-six; to wit: Beginning at the northeast corner of the State of Illinois—that is to say, at a point in the centre of Lake Michigan, where the line of forty-two degrees and thirty minutes of north latitude crosses the same; thence running with the boundary line of the State of Michigan, through Lake Michigan, Green Bay, to the mouth of Menominee River; thence up the channel of the said river to the Brule River; thence up said last mentioned river to Lake Brule; thence along the southern shore of Lake Brule, in a direct line, to the centre of the channel between Middle and South islands, in the Lake of the Desert; thence in a direct line to the head waters of the Montreal river, as marked upon the survey made by Captain Cramm; thence down the main channel of the Montreal River to the middle of Lake Superior; thence through the centre of Lake Superior to the mouth of the St. Louis River; thence up the main channel of said river to the first rapids in the same, above the Indian village, according to Nicollet's map; thence due south to the main branch of the River St. Croix; thence down the main channel of said river to the Mississippi; thence down the centre of the main channel of that river to the northwest corner of the State of Illinois; thence due east with the northern boundary of the State of Illinois to the place of beginning, as established by "An act to enable the people of Illinois Territory to form a Constitution and State government, and for the admis-

sion of such State into the Union on an equal footing with the original States," approved April 18th, 1818. *Provided, however,* that the following alteration of the aforesaid boundary be, and is hereby, proposed to the Congress of the United States as the preference of the State of Wisconsin; and if the same shall be assented and agreed to by the Congress of the United States, then the same shall be and forever remain obligatory on the State of Wisconsin, viz: leaving the aforesaid boundary line at the foot of the rapids of the St Louis river; thence in a direct line bearing southwesterly, to the mouth of the Iskodewabo, or Rum river, where the same empties into the Mississippi river; thence down the main channel of the said Mississippi river, as perscribed in the aforesaid boundary.

### MENTAL ARITHMETIC.

[For the Common School Journal.]

To point out all the different methods for shortening the work of multiplying numbers, would, perhaps, be needless, even if it were practicable. The observing mind will seize the best means of accomplishing its object, as the different examples present themselves. Yet it is well to notice the resemblances which occur in various cases, and from these to draw general rules, so that each fact and truth we may possess shall be clear and well defined in our minds.

Suppose we have for a multiplier a number of the form of  $(10^n m) \times p + m$ . Here whatever be the multiplicand  $a$ , first take it  $m$  times,  $= m \times a$ . Now to this product  $[(10^n m) \times p] \times a$  is to be added; but we already have the product of two of these factors,  $m \times a$ . Take then this product,  $m \times a$ ,  $p$  times. Annex  $n$  ciphers to multiply by  $10^n$ . This last product added to  $m \times a$ , gives the required product. We will now apply this to a particular example.

How many are 287 times 643?  $287 = (10 \times 7) \times 4 + 7$ . Here  $n=1$ ,  $m=7$  and  $p=4$ .  $m \times a = 7 \times 643 = 4501$ ;  $4501 \times 4 = 18004 = p(m \times a)$ ; annexing  $n$  ciphers becomes 180040. Adding this to 4501 the sum  $= 184541 =$  the number sought.

How many are 728 times 1264?  $728 = (10 \times 8) \times 9 + 8$ . 8 times 1264  $= 10112$ ;  $10112 \times 9 = 91008$ ; annex a cipher and it becomes 910080, which added to 10112 makes 920192, the required product.

How many are 426 times 894?

6 times 894 = 5364.

420 " " = 375480. Ans. 380,844.

How many are 6408 times 1543?

8 times 1543 = 12344.

6400 " " = 9875200. Ans. 9,887,544.

It is evident that we might have numbers in which this sys-

tem of multiples is continued farther, and so still greater contractions might be made, as for example, how many are 378546 times 6497?  $378546 = (10^3 \times 54)7 + (10 \times 6)9 + 6$ .

$$\begin{array}{rcl} 6 \text{ times } 6497 & = & 38982; \\ (10 \times 6)9 \text{ " " } & = & 3508380; \\ (10^3 \times 54)7 \text{ " " } & = & 2455866000; \end{array}$$

{ Take this No. 9 times, annex 1 cipher.  
{ Take this number 7 times, annex 2 ciphers.

Their sum is, 2,459,413,362.

Again, we have a multiplier of the form of  $10^n m + p.m.$  We find by examining the multiplier that the multiplicand  $a$  must be taken  $m$  times. Annexing to this product,  $(m \times a)$ ,  $n$  ciphers, we get a part of the required number  $= (10^n m) \times a$ . Now, take  $m \times a$ ,  $p$  times, add this product to  $(10^n m) \times a$ , and their sum is the product sought.

#### EXAMPLES.

How many are  $936 \times 1273$ ?  $936 = (10^2 \times 9) + (4 \times 9)$ . Here  $n=2$ ,  $m=9$  and  $p=4$ . 9 times 1273 = 11457, annex 2 ciphers — 1145700, and  $(9 \times 1273.) \times 4 = 45828$ ; sum of the product = 1191528.

How many are 872 times 1448?

$$800 \text{ times } 1448 = 1158400.$$

$$72 \text{ " " } = 104256.$$

Ans. 1262656.

How many are 6054 times 2345?

$$6000 \text{ times } 2345 = 14070000.$$

$$54 \text{ " " } = 12663.$$

Ans. 14,082,663.

These also may be extended as before, or in this case;  $763567 = (7 \times 10^5) + (7 \times 10^3)9 + 63 \times 9$ .

These contractions can often be used to advantage, when the multiplier does not exactly coincide with either of the mentioned forms, but is somewhat different.

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \text{How many are 413 times } & 892 & \\ & 356800 & \\ & 10704 & \end{array} \left. \vphantom{\begin{array}{r} 892 \\ 356800 \\ 10704 \end{array}} \right\} \text{ Answer, 367,396.}$$

How many are 829 times 1623?

$$9 \text{ times } 1623 = 14,607.$$

$$810 \text{ " " } = 1,314,630.$$

$$10 \text{ " " } = 16,230.$$

Answer, 1,345,467.

Many contractions in division will readily occur to one thinking upon the subject; such as the following: To divide a number by 25; if the number be greater than one hundred, consider it as composed of hundreds and the two right hand figures; multiply the number of hundreds by 4, add to this product the quotient of the two right hand figures by 25. To divide a number by 5; consider the number as composed of the unit figure and tens, multiply the tens by two, add to this product the quotient of the unit figure by 5.



Let us now consider a few particular cases of squaring numbers; and first, when the unit figure of the number is 5. Consider the number as composed of the unit figure and tens; let  $a$  = number of tens, then the number  $= a + 5$  and its square  $(a^2 + 10 \times a + 25) = (a + 1)$  tens times  $a$  tens  $+ 25$ . The product of tens by tens is hundreds, hence there will be no units or tens but those in the 25; we then have a rule for squaring numbers whose unit figure is 5; *increase the number of tens by one, and by this number multiply the tens, the product is the number of hundreds in the square sought; add to this product 25.*

What is the square of 35? No. of tens 3;  $3 \times 4 = 12 =$  No. of hundreds; add 25 = 1225.

What is the square of 45? No. of tens 4;  $4 \times 5 = 20 =$  No. of hundreds; add 25 = 2025.

What is the square of 55? No. of tens 5;  $5 \times 6 = 30 =$  No. of hundreds; add 25 = 3025.

What is the square of 65? No. of tens 6;  $6 \times 7 = 42 =$  No. of hundreds; add 25 = 4225.

In the same way, we could square numbers ending with 50, 500, &c., being careful to annex the proper number of ciphers.

If a number ending in 25 be given to be squared, consider the number as composed of hundreds and 25; let  $a$  = number of hundreds; then the number  $= a + 25$  and its square  $= (a^2 + a \times 50 + 625) = a + \frac{a}{2} \times 100 + 625$ . But the product of hundreds by hundreds is tens of thousands, hence  $a^2$  and also  $\frac{a}{2} \times 100$  must be a certain number of tens of thousands; and since  $\frac{a}{2} \times 100$  gives half as many tens of thousands as there are units in  $a$ , we see that if to the square of the number of hundreds, one half of the number of hundreds be added, the sum is the number of tens of thousands in the square sought; and adding to this 625 we have the required number.

What is the square of 425?  $4 \times 4 + \frac{4}{2} = 18 =$  No. of tens of thousands; add 625 = 180625.

What is the square of 525?  $5 \times 5 + \frac{5}{2} = 27\frac{1}{2} =$  No. of tens of thousands; add 625 = 275625.

What is the square of 625?  $6 \times 6 + \frac{6}{2} = 39 =$  No. of tens of thousands; add 625 = 390625.

What is the square of 725?  $7 \times 7 + \frac{7}{2} = 52\frac{1}{2} =$  No. of tens of thousands; add 625 = 525625.

Suppose we have a number ending in 75 to be squared. Representing the number by a formula, we shall find that the tens of thousands in the square will be obtained by multiplying the number of hundreds by a number equal to itself increased by  $1\frac{1}{2}$ , and if to this the square of 75 = 5625 be added, the sum is the square required.

## EXAMPLES.

What is the square of 475?  $4 \times (4 + 1\frac{1}{2}) = 22 =$  the number of tens of thousands; add 5625 = 225625.

What is the square of 675?  $6 \times (6 + 1\frac{1}{2}) = 45$  = the number of tens of thousands; add  $5625 = 455625$ .

What is the square of 875?  $8 \times (8 + 1\frac{1}{2}) = 76$  = the number of tens of thousands; add  $5625 = 765625$ .

This method is modified a little when the number of hundreds is uneven. Let us consider the number 575.  $5 \times (5 + 1\frac{1}{2}) = 32\frac{1}{2}$ . Now, this half of a ten thousand, equal to 5 thousand, added to the 5 thousand from the 5625, makes 1 tens of thousands. This one tens of thousand must be added to the 32 tens of thousand, making, with the 625 remaining, 330625. Then when the number of hundreds is uneven, multiply the number of hundreds by a number greater by one than itself, and add to this product the half of a number greater by one than the number of hundreds in the given number.

#### EXAMPLES.

What is the square of 575?  $(5 \times 6) + \frac{5}{2} = 33$  = number of tens of thousands; add  $625 = 330625$ .

What is the square of 775?  $(7 \times 8) + \frac{7}{2} = 60$  = No. of tens of thousands; add  $625 = 600625$ .

What is the square of 975?  $(9 \times 10) + \frac{9}{2} = 95$  = No. of tens of thousands; add  $625 = 900625$ .

It will be observed, that, when the number of hundreds is even, the figure 5 is at the left of the figure 6, but when the number of hundreds is uneven, a cipher is to the left of the figure 6.

We will next consider the general subject of squaring numbers.

B. N. S.

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[From the Christian Citizen.]

#### THE SCOTTISH SCHOOL-MASTER.

The celebrated lexicographer, Dr. Samuel Johnson, in his "*Journey to the Western Islands*," says: "The profession of a schoolmaster is less honorable in Scotland than in England; it is, therefore, seldom accepted by men who can adorn it." This fact, of nearly a hundred years old, remains almost substantially correct to this day. Men who would adorn any profession do indeed accept the situation of teachers in Scotland, but they do so merely from necessity. They do not adopt it as a permanent position, and they get out of it as soon as they can.

One of the grand attributes of Scottish conceit is her educational greatness; and so satisfied has my poor doating country been with this tradition of her own learned optimity, that she has believed it. Our old men will gravely shake their heads, and say, "the Scotch are the best educated folks in the world;" and little boys become imbued with this notion almost before they know the alphabet. No nation, however, can become a rightly educated nation, where the teacher is contemned; and

that he is so, in Scotland, is a glaring fact. This position of the schoolmaster must result from either of two causes,—his own inherent weakness, or utter depravity of Scottish sentiment. From whichever of these it proceeds, it is a lamentable circumstance that must act fatally upon the true moral dignity of the nation.

Every body has heard of the Scottish Parochial system of education, and its results ; but that system has never created a respectable idea for the teacher, whatever effect it may have had upon the general intelligence of the people. He is either feared or hated by the young, and he is derided by those of riper years. We shall explain to our brethren in the United States the position of popular education in Scotland, in our own popular way ; and they shall judge if we have not need of a movement, in this country, of a most radical nature, in reference to education.

The Scotch Parochial system is a system of State education, as much as the Presbyterian Church is a State Church. The salary of the teacher, graduating from a maximum of about 160 dollars per annum to about forty, is paid by the heritors of the parish, that is, the landed proprietors, who induct, as the case may be, the minister and schoolmaster, if the patronage does not happen to be vested in the crown or an individual. This inadequacy of the teacher's salary induces him to become a species of Caleb Quotem, who, descending from his pedagogical throne, becomes tax-collector, parish clerk, and nominal precentor, in order to eke out his means of subsistence. Brought thus into collision with the tax-hating people, he becomes from association, an object of hatred ; and noses are often turned up, and lips sarcastically curled, when the "*dominie*" is spoken of. The nominees of these parish schools are often young men, who have been tutors in the families of patrons ; and as they are generally licentiates of the Church of Scotland, looking sharply out for clerical incumbencies, they become teachers as a put off, and leave the school for the pulpit with all possible celerity ; for neither the highest emoluments nor fame of the former are sufficient to counterbalance those of the poorest and worst attended parish church.

The labor of the schoolmaster is an incessant, ill-paid drudgery. The duties of the clergyman are comparatively easy, respectable, and to a pious man must be truly delightful. So that those licentiates who are constrained to remain teachers, are disappointed men, and not at all likely to be hearty in the performance of their duties. The general idea, in Scotland, of a country schoolmaster, is that of a sententious, magniloquent young man, who plumes himself upon his expectations ; or of a thread-bare, shabbily-dressed, shrivelled old man, who has become crabbed under his disappointments. But whether young

or old, the Scottish schoolmaster cannot tell his position ;—he cannot say whether, in conventional language, he is a gentleman or not.

Another cause of the low standing of the Scottish teacher has undoubtedly resulted from the spirit of sectarianism so rampant in this nation. Every little sect seems to have become imbued with the idea that the children of its communion would be led into the broad and mirey way of sin, if it were even to imbibe the alphabet from a teacher whose orthodoxy was not attested by its own synod ; so that, to almost every meeting house, there is attached a little school, where a languishing man, for a pittance far below that of a handicraftsman, languidly teaches the children of the congregation to read, write, and cipher. This teacher sometimes receives a very small salary ; but generally he is dependent upon the school fees for support, and these seldom range above two-pence per week for each child,—a sum that is even irregularly and ill-paid, where great poverty is so common as in Britain.

It may easily be supposed that men of more than mediocre talent will not accept these situations. Neither experience, nor education, nor intelligence, will submit itself to this dull, hope-destroying routine of life, if it can obtain a more remunerative field for its labors ; so that youths studying for the ministry, who are generally poor, and have to work themselves through their curriculum at the University, engage as temporary teachers ;—youths who could rhyme you off screeds of Latin, and who might translate some easy texts of Greek, but who know almost little or nothing of human dispositions, and about as much of the business of instruction. Resulting from this system of educational subdivision, is an active, and, doubtless, a vitiating process of competition. To a needy man, whose income depends upon the aggregate of school fees, even the attendance of one child is an object of importance ; and teachers, therefore, who are less proud than they are poor, canvass parents, and coax them to send the children, not to school, which would be honorable and noble, but to their particular school, which good counsel bears an impress of selfishness, which detracts from their own dignity, and presents the man of ostensible education to the ignorant, in the humiliating aspect of an object of pity.

Another phase of the competitive system is exhibited in those exhibitions called examinations, where the teacher, in order to win for himself a name, consents to produce a false impression upon the public mind. He leads forth boys and girls to the public platform, and declares them to be schooled in certain kinds of knowledge of which they literally know nothing ; and in order to substantiate this deceit, to which he has made the innocent children parties, he causes them to run over some parroted sentences, of whose meaning they know about as little as



a native New Hollander does of mathematics. We have seen little boys do some astonishing, and, to our dull ideas, impossible things in arithmetic, on these grave occasions. We have seen the result of a question in the extraction of the cube root appear, long before the prescient child had filled up the working of the same ; and we have seen problems in mathematics flippantly and dexterously demonstrated by youths of tender age, who did not know the simple definitions.

"There's something rotten in the State of Denmark," said a great dramatist, in an allusion to the political aspect of that peninsula ; and surely there is something rotten in the educational system of a country where such things as we have adduced, exist. We know those things to be true, and we, therefore, do not wonder that such men as Horace Mann, of Massachusetts, smile at our boasted educational pre-eminence, when they have examined into the foundation upon which that boast rests. This hypocrisy of erudition, which seeks to hide its real, essential weakness beneath a cloak of superficial presumption, is, however, a demonstration of knowledge. Unless we were conscious of inherent inability, we should not seek thus to invest ourselves with the false majesty of the purely apparent. We know that we really are not what we pretend to be, and, therefore, we assume to be what we feel we ought to be.

There are many teachers in Scotland, however,—men of extensive learning, high probity, and noble philanthropy,—and these have at last determined to rescue their profession from its low position in the national mind, and consequently to raise the standard of national education. Placing little confidence in legislators who seem to be most ignorant of the state of the nation, they have adopted the advice of the sage old lark to her children, and have now determined to act for themselves in the spirit of union. Eighteen hundred teachers have lately enrolled themselves into a body, called the "Educational Institute of Scotland ;" and from this Society we anticipate the revival and progress of Scottish education. The Association is based upon broad and catholic principles, having for its objects the elevation of that class of men to whose care are consigned the morality and virtue of the most interesting portion of the human family. It shall be the aim of the Institute to nurture a spirit of permanency in the teacher, and to render his situation such a one as even the highest genius might delight to expend itself upon ;—to preserve within the educational pale such men as Johnson, Beattie, Goldsmith, Thomas Carlyle and Alexander Wilson, and to cherish such women as Hannah More, where assuredly the labors of such talented moral reformers would be radical and efficient ; for they would be expended in building up the young, fresh elements of society,—not in correcting and remodelling the inveterate prejudices of a baneful education.

J. B. S

*Edinburgh, Scotland.*

## HEREDITARY INFIRMITY.

EXTRACT FROM THE SIXTEENTH ANNUAL REPORT OF DR. S. G. HOWE, TO THE TRUSTEES OF THE PERKINS INSTITUTE FOR THE BLIND.

A clear understanding of this law of the transmission of diseased tendencies, both of body and mind, will do much towards banishing disease and suffering from among the children of men.

It will be seen that the wit of man cannot devise a way of escape from the penalty of a violated law of nature ; that not a single debauch, not a single excess, not a single abuse of any animal propensity, ever was or ever can be committed without more or less evil consequences ; that sins of this kind are not and cannot be forgiven. There may be those who will harden their hearts and stiffen their necks, and be willing to bide the consequences to themselves for the sake of the sensual pleasures ; but there will appear in the far-off and shadowy future the beseeching forms of little children, — some halt, or lame, or blind, or deformed, or decrepit, — crying, in speechless accents, "Forbear, for our sakes ; for the arrows that turn aside from you are rankling in our flesh" ; others, having the seeds of direful passions, — envy, hatred, malice, uncleanness, — say sadly, "O, bridle your passions, or they will tear us asunder like wild horses !" Then it shall be seen, that, if the fathers will eat sour grapes, the children's teeth shall be set on edge ; that many a mother is responsible for the pride, the vanity, the lust of her daughter ; that many a father is as guilty of the death of his son upon the gallows, as though he twisted the rope about his neck with his own hands.

Then many a woman will rouse herself to the stern duty of observance of every law of health, of abstinence from all luxury and all selfishness, for the sake of those dear ones that may be born to her ; and many a man will abandon sensual indulgences, which he would have clung to through life, but for fear of cursing his future offspring with hellish passions.

Then will some soar to such an exalted pitch of virtue, as to forego their dearest hopes, and resolutely keep aloof from any relations of life, that might cause them to hand down bodily or mental infirmities upon the innocent ones of the coming generations.

Then will light be thrown upon the laws of "the pestilence that walketh in darkness" from generation to generation, and the wisdom and goodness of God be made manifest even in them.

Then many a case of blindness, or deafness, or infirmity, instead of being looked upon as a mysterious dispensation of Providence, will be seen to be only the penalty of a violated law, which was enacted in kindness and love.

Then the love of God to men will be manifested even in

afflictions, and his praise will be perfected out of disease and suffering, as well as out of health and enjoyment.

Then it will be seen, that, if this world is a vale of tears, if it is full of deformity, and suffering, and sickness, and crime, it is man, and not God, that maketh it so.

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#### ALL ABOUT CHILDREN.

**THE NURSERY.**—The nursery is a wonderful world, and all that therein is, but baby is the greatest wonder of all. That little separate thing in the world—uncommunicating with others, unremembered by itself—that mysterious state of being before the deluge of memory sets in, lying there, like a hermit in his cell, as if gathering strength in passive contemplation for the world's encounter. Who says that a baby does not think or feel? Have they never seen that strange smile breaking "through clouds of infant flesh," and then passing away, as if it caught for a moment the harmonies of heaven? Or have they never heard that stranger sigh—the first spontaneous language of one who is "born to sorrow"—as if it heard from afar the growing jar of this earth—incognizant, to our apprehensions, as it lies passively there, either of this world or that, yet stamped by that very smile and sigh, as the being who stands mysteriously between both?

But the noise and uproar have been too much! The round lustrous eyes are wide open, which, like the eyes of the divine child in the Sistine Madonna, seem to look at nothing, in gazing beyond all things, and baby is seated on nurse's knee. There it sits, the little stranger, who dwelleth so calmly amongst us, without speech or movement, though brothers and sisters are screaming and running around it, looking so serenely content, as if it knew how little either could weigh in the balance with its own deep repose.

There is no model like a lovely baby for true queenly dignity—the wide open gaze, the hand's slow movement, the proud drawing up if the usual etiquette be transgressed, reminding us of the beautiful lines in the *Lyra Innocentium*:

Why so stately, maiden fair.  
Rising in thy nurse's arms,  
With that condescending air,  
Gathering up thy queenly charms?—

the round, portly form, moving slowly to and fro, imbedded in lawn and fine linen. And then, when a few months older, the true royal impatience of opposition, the autocratic air with which spoon and rattle are dashed down; the haughty stare if some monitory voice exclaim, "Baby! baby!" and then the

celestial smile, as if to forgive you for having been angry with her.—*Fraser's Magazine*.

**CHILDREN'S SOCIETY.**—The society of young children is, in a high degree, softening and refining to the mind. You seldom see nurse maids with vulgar, rough manners. They acquire a kind of sister-of-charity expression from the constant atmosphere of tenderness and simplicity in which they live. The French have a right name for them, as they have for most things. They call her "*la bonne*." We can't help thinking, too, that, in most cases, she is a far better companion to the child in its first years than even its own mother. Her absence of intellect is more on a par with the child's dawn of it. She is not so perpetually probing for the young idea, to see whether it be shooting. She has a kind of passive patience and dumb fidelity, on which the child's nature can more easily repose. A child may actually learn but little from its nurse, though the reverse is often the case, but with her it is always *the child*. Even an unprincipled woman will be innoxious towards the children committed to her charge. She may be robbing the parents, but she will respect the child. There is something in the very tenor of her charge, which brings out the tender maternal feelings dormant in every woman's breast, and the purer here for being unmixed with any of the vulgar cares of life. They are *bona fide* her children, without any of the drawbacks of anxiety for their future provision, or labor for their present wants. She lives in luxury with only the duties of a mother. Every own mother has many more.—*Ibid*.

**CHILDREN'S PLAYTHINGS.**—As regards the manufacture of playthings expressly for children, it does seem, under these circumstances, something like sending coals to Newcastle. Still they are excellent devices for saving furniture, which was doubtless the origin of their invention. There is a delicate art, however, in their adaptation, which is too often neglected. Children are real poets in feeling. All they want is to have their ideas suggested; supply them too fully, and they stop. Playthings will often destroy play. They are to children what words are to music; the first condition is, that they should not express too much. There is something withering to a child's fancy in an elaborate toy, which leaves nothing for him to "make believe." An over-dressed doll, or an over-stocked doll's house, are never the objects of much real play, or not till the child has dismantled or destroyed them to such a degree as to clear away some space for his own contrivance.—*Ib*.

**CHILDREN'S CRYING.**—There is an immense deal to be learnt too, in the varieties of children's crying. Not only in the judgment of the child's individual character, but for sound instruction in the arts of passion and pathos. There is a good,



earnest, open roar, quickly raised and quickly spent, which is of excellent promise, — the explosion of a good heart, which clears the air without muddying the ground. And there is a patient, monotonous, wearing-out snivel, with no expenditure of strength or voice, which augurs a weak intellect, and one of those amiable dispositions, which provoke you more than a decidedly bad one. Each of these is an excellent study,—the one to intimidate, and the other to tire ; rarely failing of their end on any stage, but neither succeeds in touching the heart. For this, however, children are matchless as examples. There is a depth of helpless, prostrate affliction ; sobs, and sighs, now hemmed in, now breaking forth again, with a sobbing kind of back-water stroke, such as one would imagine the Babes of the Wood to have uttered at the very moment they lay down and died, which “no heart that breathes with human breath” could ever resist. And then again there is a pale, hopeless look, with quiet, trickling tears, as if the little heart were driven to the last refuge of self-pity, or had caught the first glimmering of the meaning of despair, which is ten times worse :

What is so shrill as silent tears ?

Most children cry, and it is a safe and desirable sign. Some cry to please themselves, and some to please their mothers. There are only two sorts who abstain, as different as light and darkness, though often confounded. The one is the haughty spirit, the other the sullen temper. The first with gentle usage and implicit trust, you need never despair of ; the latter, alas ! will tire out the fondest physician.—*Ibid.*

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#### INDUSTRY AND ECONOMY.

Industry is a word pretty well understood in this region, and practised by a very large proportion of the young men ; but economy, in taking care of earnings, and laying up something for future use, is greatly neglected by a large portion of young mechanics.

Those engaged in mechanical employments, with the same degree of industry, have a much better chance of accumulating estates, than farmers ; and yet it is not so often done by them, and principally on account of the readiness with which the mechanic commands the fruit of his labor in cash, which is the most ready form in which it can slip through his hands, without any solid advantage, or any accumulation.

It often happens among us, that those who command the highest wages make the smallest gains at the end of the year ; by reason that their large gains tempt them into larger expenditures.

Never was there a greater chance for young men, with health, and skill as mechanics, to lay the foundation of estates from

their own industry alone, without previous capital, than has been enjoyed by the young men of Massachusetts during the past year. And many of them have doubtless improved their advantages, and will enjoy the fruits through life ; but it is to be feared that there are many who hardly know what has become of their earnings. We know of young men engaged in the manufacture of shoes and boots, who have earned \$1.50 per day, with great ease, every day they chose to work ; and that, too, with much less hardship and fewer hours of labor, than almost every farmer works in carrying on his farm.

One dollar and fifty cents, on an average, for every working day, is \$469.50 a year ; deducting board, at \$1.75 per week, it leaves \$378.50 ; deduct for clothing and other expenses, the \$78.50, and such a mechanic may lay up in one year \$300. But as this may be considered a high estimate for the earnings of an individual, we may call it one dollar a day for earnings, and one dollar and fifty cents a week for board, and then see how easy a mechanic may become a man of property.

One dollar a day for each working day, is \$313 a year ; deducting \$75 for board, and \$50 for clothing and expenses, will leave him to lay up \$188 a year. This, in ten years, will amount to 1880, of the earnings alone ; but being put at interest, and the \$188 of new earnings added to the capital each year, it will make at the end of ten years a pretty estate of \$2,603.97.

This appears, by a hasty calculation, omitting the fractions of cents or mills ; and now if some of our school boys, or young men, will work it out to a mill, it will serve to fix it on their minds, and we will publish the answer, with the initials of those who work out the problem, which, to make the question clearer, we will put in a simpler form, viz. :

What will a young man be worth at the end of ten years, who earns \$1 a day, excluding Sabbaths, and adding two days for leap years, paying \$1.50 a week for board, and \$50 a year for clothes,—at compound interest ?

We shall have no reluctance in publishing replies which may show our calculation to be quite erroneous, having no pride and not much confidence in our mathematical accuracy, having gone over the calculation but once. Our whole object will be answered, if we turn the attention of young men to the importance of earning and saving, to their future comfort and standing in society.

It is a curious fact that many young men accumulate property after having a wife and family ; who, with the same earnings, laid up nothing before marriage. This is likely to happen only by greater economy in him as to unnecessary expenses, and the assistance of an industrious and frugal wife ; but the fact that it so often happens, is a high compliment to the young ladies of New England.—*Haverhill Gazette*.

[The following article sets forth, in a true light, the influence of a mother upon the character of a child.—Ed.]

## GENEALOGY OF JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.

[From Rev. Dr. Pierce.]

It was a felicity of John Quincy Adams's life, that he sprung from a long line of pious and industrious ancestors. This circumstance he was in the habit of gratefully recognising.

This fondness for genealogical researches, was a striking characteristic of his father, particularly towards the close of life.

I distinctly remember a conversation with him on the subject, at his house, in Quincy, in which he lamented that he had not earlier cultivated a taste for tracing genealogies, which, he said, was growing upon him as he advanced in life, for, added he, I have lost many precious opportunities for accumulating genealogical facts by the departure of so many, who could have furnished them. He then said with an emphasis which I can never forget, "I hold the person who is not fond of tracing a line of virtuous ancestry to be both a *natural*, and an *unnatural* fool.

The first, in the male line, who came to this country, was Henry Adams, one of the original proprietors, who settled at Braintree, near Quincy. He had a son Joseph, whose son Joseph was father of Deacon John Adams, father of the first President Adams. So that John Quincy Adams was great, great, great grandson of the founder of the family, in this country. The first four were industrious farmers, members in full communion with the church to which they belonged. The father of President John Adams, was for many years Deacon of the Church in his native village.

The mother of the first President Adams was Susanna Boylston, of Brookline. In repeated instances he has mentioned her with the same affection and respect, with which John Quincy Adams always spoke of his mother. There can be no doubt, that, in both cases, the sons owed much to maternal instruction and influence for what they became in subsequent life. O what importance do such considerations annex to the efforts of a good mother in training the rising generation!

Every one, who has read Mrs. Adams's letters, (and who has not read them?) cannot fail to have perceived, how admirably she was fitted to train up such a son. In an interview which I had with the elder Adams toward the close of his life, in company with others, our inquiries principally related to the education of his son, John Quincy Adams. On this, his favorite subject, he was pleased amply to gratify our curiosity. He descended into particulars, and gave a minute account of the various literary institutions in which he had placed him in

Europe and America, from his early youth, to his admission into Harvard University. Never can I forget the emphatical terms in which he closed his account, by adding, "but after all, it must be considered, that my son had a mother." Who, that was ever acquainted with this highly gifted woman, or read the productions of her mind, but must be struck with the propriety of this tribute to her memory.

The mother of John Quincy Adams, was Abigail, daughter of the Rev. William Smith, of Weymouth. Her mother was daughter of Colonel John Quincy, who lived and died in that part of Quincy, called Mount Wollaston.

At one of my last interviews with him, Mr. Adams gave me the following account. He was born on Saturday, July 11th, 1767, so that his mother, in allusion to an old distich of those times, used playfully to say to him, "John, you will have to work for your living."

On the next day, he was baptized in the church by the Rev. Anthony Wibard, and by the solicitations of his grandmother, wife of the Rev. William Smith, he was named John Quincy, after her father, the great grandfather of the child.

On Monday, July 13, this Colonel John Quincy, whose name he bore, expired.

In my last visit but one to Mr. Adams, my curiosity led me to propose the following question: How was it, Mr. Adams, that your mother, the daughter of a plain country clergyman, when the means of education, especially in our villages, were so exceedingly limited, became so accomplished a scholar? He at once replied, that she was principally indebted for her early training to judge Richard Cranch, a native of Devonshire, England, who, on becoming engaged to her elder sister Mary, kindly superintended the education of the three sisters.

#### W. N. S. N. SCHOOL.

The Members and Graduates of the W. Newton State Normal School are hereby notified, that their Triennial Convention will be held at Normal Hall, on Wednesday July 26th. The Convention will form at 9 o'clock; and the Address, by Rev. R. Waterston, will be delivered at 10, A. M. Collation at 2, P. M., with speeches and appropriate music. It is hoped that every member will be present, with the appropriate Normal Badge. Expenses to be defrayed by an assessment on the members of the Convention.

BY THE COMMITTEE OF ARRANGEMENTS.

W. Newton Normal Hall, June 15, 1848.

N.B.—The next Term of the W. N. S. N. School will commence on Wednesday, September 6th.

C. PEIRCE, Principal.

*All Communications, Newspapers, and Periodicals, for the Editor, to be addressed to West Newton, Mass.*

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